

Volume 35 Number 9
JUNE 1953

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School Life



◀ Winchester Pageant Finale

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

Tasks That Lie Ahead

By Oveta Culp Hobby*
Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare

THE Department of Health, Education, and Welfare is bound together by a common purpose and a common outlook. Its aim is service; its philosophy is cooperation; and its method is teamwork. We neither impose nor direct. We work with others to get the common job done.

I could tell you of many interesting facets of our amazingly diversified and complex operation. However, I can give you further background on the size and importance of some of these programs by telling you of some of the urgent matters on which we have been working since last January 20.

At the direct request of the President we are working on four urgent pieces of Administration legislation. In capsule form, they are as follows:

1. Tightening factory inspection provisions so that the Food and Drug Administration can do a better job to protect consumers against impure food, drugs, and cosmetics.

2. Extending, with some needed changes, two public laws providing for Federal help on school construction and maintenance and operations of schools in what we call federally impacted areas. This legislation is to help school districts where the Federal Government moves in on a special project—say atomic energy—takes large areas of land off the tax rolls and adds literally thousands of children, whose fathers are employed on the Federal project, to the school load. Some of you are from areas where just this sort of thing has happened and you know what a predicament local school districts face.

3. Broadening the base of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance so that it covers more people now outside of Social Security. I am meeting regularly with a group of consultants who are well-versed on Social Security laws. With their help, I hope to work out and recommend changes designed to realize this objective which was part of the Republican platform and which the President specifically mentioned in his State of the Union Message to Congress in February.

4. In his message transmitting the Plan elevating the Federal Security Agency to Departmental status, the President asked that the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare have available to her a special committee to advise her on educational matters. Enabling legislation for this committee now is being prepared.

As editors I think you will be interested in some other examples of projects currently under way.

In midsummer we anticipate that the new Clinical Center of the Public Health Service at Bethesda, Md., will admit its first patients. This Center, provided for by the Repub-

*Portion of Mrs. Hobby's address before the American Society of Newspaper Editors, April 16, 1953, in Washington, D. C.

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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The cover photograph, by Arthur Ellis, Washington Post photographer, shows a chorus of high school graduates as they sang the finale in the 1953 pageant of the traditional Shenandoah Apple Blossom Festival at Winchester, Va. Twelve hundred school children took part in this year's pageant.

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

OVETA CULP HOBBY..... Secretary
RALL I. GRIGSBY..... Acting Commissioner of Education
GEORGE KERRY SMITH..... Director, Reports and Technical Services
JOHN H. LLOYD..... Managing Editor of SCHOOL LIFE
ARVILLA H. SINGER..... Art Editor

Address all SCHOOL LIFE inquiries to the Director, Reports and Technical Services, Office of Education, U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE.

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THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

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Deferment for High School Students

NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS officials have announced that local boards may classify a high school student directly into class I-S if they have in their possession, prior to making the classification, evidence that the registrant is a full-time high school student and that he is making satisfactory grades. It is desirable that students bring such information to the attention of their local boards.

A student who receives a I-S statutory deferment from his local board is entitled to retain that classification until one of the following occurs: (1) he graduates, (2) he reaches age 20, or (3) he ceases to make satisfactory grades.

By classifying a student directly into class I-S a local board can, in many instances, effect a monetary saving to the Government besides avoiding inconvenience to the student. If the student is classified in I-A he must be sent for a preinduction physical examination when his order number is reached. Since a preinduction physical examination is good for only a prescribed period, many students who might later be reclassified into I-S would have to be reexamined after the termination of their I-S deferment.

Under the Selective Service law every youth must register with a local board within 5 days after he reaches his eighteenth birthday. The law provides further, however, that he does not become liable for service until he becomes 18½. Shortly after a youth registers, his local board mails him a Selective Service classification questionnaire. When the questionnaire is returned, the local board classifies the registrant, on the basis of the information he put in his questionnaire. If the registrant disagrees with the classification made by the local board he may appeal to the State Appeal Board by merely sending, within 10 days from the date of mailing, a letter to

Rall I. Grigsby, Acting Commissioner of Education, transmitted to chief State school officers recently a statement from the National Headquarters of Selective Service. This statement "is of great importance to all high school students," said Dr. Grigsby. "It modifies and clarifies their rights under current Selective Service procedures." The Selective Service announcement, General Information Bulletin No. 37, is reported in full on this page.

his local board stating he wishes to appeal his classification.

Since the local board classifies an 18-year-old shortly after he registers, it is suggested that every youth who receives a questionnaire while still in high school, go to the principal of the high school, after mailing his questionnaire, and request him to send a letter to the student's local board. The principal's letter should attest the following: (1) The registrant is a full-time student at that high school, (2) he is making satisfactory grades, and (3) the date he is expected to receive his diploma.

All registrants are required by law to notify their local boards of all changes in their status. Therefore, all high school students should be reminded that they must notify their local boards when they receive their diploma, when they cease to make satisfactory grades or if they quit high school.

If high school students are advised of their rights and obligations under the law and keep their local boards correctly advised of their status at all times, the Selective Service machinery can function with the minimum of concern and inconvenience to the registrant and a lighter workload on the local board. The men who operate the local boards, appeal boards and act as appeal agents and advisors all serve without compensation. These men donate their time as

a patriotic service so that our registrants may be classified by local men who are familiar with local conditions.

One of the problems facing many youths in their last year of high school is deciding whether to go into service immediately after graduation and discharge their obligation or go on to college and try to complete their education before going into service.

For the high school senior intending to enter college, there are two provisions to consider. First, a full-time college student called for induction during his academic year may request that he be deferred until he has finished his academic year. If he does so, the deferment must be granted but he can get such a statutory deferment only once.

Also, a youth who starts a full-time college course before being called can try for a second type of student deferment. He can apply to take the Selective Service College Qualification Test. It's being given at various intervals each year.

The results of the test are sent to the local board. The board can then defer the student for another academic year if he has achieved a certain score, or if he attains prescribed class standing. A local board is not required to defer a student who meets either criteria but their decision is subject to appeal.

It should be remembered that a deferment is just that—a delay. When the student graduates from college, he is expected to serve 2 years on active duty. In fact, he remains liable for service until 35, if he has been deferred.

A student can also gain deferment by being accepted for college military training. Members of college ROTC units are deferred, so long as they remain in good standing, provided they sign an agreement to accept a commission upon graduation and serve 2 years on active duty.

To College Seniors—What of Your Future?

By Martin P. Durkin,* Secretary of Labor

IT HAS become a spring custom for the Secretary of Labor to advise college seniors of the job opportunities which await them upon completion of their collegiate work. It is therefore with pleasure, that I take this opportunity to congratulate you upon achieving one goal in your career. I also extend a hearty welcome to those of you who will join the men and women of the nation's labor force and begin working toward succeeding goals.

Some of you will go on to do graduate work in your chosen field. For most of you, however, your bachelor's degree will mark the completion of your formal education. Many of you will face a period of military service. Whatever you do now, it would be profitable to develop a vocational plan for your future, if you have not already done so. Such a plan should be based upon the relationships between your own interests, abilities and training, and long-range economic opportunities. Your first postcollege job, your graduate work, or your military service, as the case may be, should fit into that plan and advance you along your chosen path.

The economy of the United States is now operating at record-breaking levels. The job outlook this year is excellent. You will, however, be faced with the problem of getting started in the field of your choice. Common sense dictates that you learn as much as you can about where the immediate and the long-range opportunities lie—in what industries, in what occupations, and in what sections of the country.

The attached article discusses the general over-all situation and presents information with respect to job opportunities in a number of broad fields, most of them professional. This information should be supplemented with information and services which you may obtain from campus placement and guidance bureaus and from local offices of State employment services affiliated with the Labor Department's United States Employment Service, including more detailed local and regional employment information, and professional counseling, testing, and placement services so valuable in facilitating the process of finding a satisfactory job.

There is sometimes a glamour attached

to the job openings created as new industries are born or existing industries expand. It is well to remember, however, that most of the jobs taken by this year's college graduates will be, as usual, those which have been vacated by other workers. Deaths and retirements create the largest number of openings. It follows that most of the openings will occur in the large industries and in the areas where there are now the heaviest concentrations of employment.

It is my hope that you will speedily find employment where you can best utilize your knowledge and skills and contribute most to the society that made possible your education. Collectively, you and your classmates are a national resource of major importance. We need the work of your hands and minds and the cooperation of your hearts if our country is to prosper and grow, and retain its leadership of the free world.

Yours very truly,

Martin P. Durkin.

SECRETARY OF LABOR.

Job Outlook for 1953 Graduates

The economy of the United States is operating at extremely high levels. Employment records are established nearly every month, and unemployment is at post-war low. Consequently, the employment outlook for college graduates this year is excellent.

The main forces responsible for our present high production and employment are consumer purchases, new construction, and capital investment in new plants and equipment. All of these forces are operating at the highest levels in our history and are likely to continue so for a number of months to come. A further incentive is provided by the demand for military goods and equipment for national defense. Such expenditures have been at a record high for

peacetime, but are scheduled to edge downward within the foreseeable future.

It is traditional for Americans to look upon military service as an interruption of their civilian lives, but this service can pro-

vide significant vocational and educational opportunities. You may therefore wish to consult the latest editions of a number of official publications on the vocational and educational opportunities offered by the armed services. These are available at local recruiting offices.

Engineering

Opportunities in engineering are excellent for both new graduates and experienced men and women. During the build-up stage of the defense program the demand for engineers rose spectacularly. Over the forthcoming period of partial mobilization an average of 30,000 new engineers per year will be needed. On the other hand, the number of new engineering graduates has been declining since the 1950 peak of 52,000 and will continue to drop, reaching a low of

This statement, addressed to the Nation's college seniors by the Secretary of Labor, is a timely presentation at the graduation period when youth leave high school or college and look ahead to the future. The information given by Mr. Durkin should be helpful to high school students, and to those responsible for counseling young people as they plan and study for careers in an ever-changing world.

*An open letter from the Secretary of Labor, with supplemental data on Job Outlook for 1953 Graduates.

about 19,000 in 1954. Graduations are expected to rise again to about 22,000 in 1955 and 29,000 in 1956 (assuming continuation of present Selective Service student deferment policies). However, many of the new graduates of the next few years will enter the Armed Forces upon graduation. Therefore, the shortage of engineers is expected to continue for a number of years.

Chemical, electrical, and mechanical engineers will continue to find employment mainly in manufacturing industries, while Federal, State, and local governments will employ the largest number of civil engineers.

Natural Sciences

Demand for personnel in most of the natural sciences has increased sharply during the past 2 years, especially in activities related to defense production and research and development. However, personnel are also needed in other kinds of scientific work such as administration and technical sales. The demand for personnel in the natural sciences as a whole is expected to exceed the supply for several years as the defense program continues; the need will be most intense for workers with graduate training or considerable experience. However, opportunities for persons with only a bachelor's degree will continue to remain good, particularly in view of the declining numbers of graduates with bachelor's degrees.

Chemists.—Employment opportunities for chemists are greatest in such manufacturing industries as chemicals, petroleum, rubber, food, and paper. Educational institutions and government also employ substantial number of chemists. They are also in demand in consulting laboratories, non-profit research institutes, hospitals, and mining companies. Though the need for persons with graduate training is greatest, those with only a bachelor's degree will find numerous opportunities.

Median income of chemists in 1951 was \$5,800 in private industry, \$5,000 in government, and \$4,900 in educational institutions. Chemists with a Ph. D. earned \$6,900; those with a master's degree, \$5,400; and those with a bachelor's degree, \$4,900.

Physicists.—The defense program has greatly increased the need for physicists, particularly for those with advanced training. The demand for persons with only a bachelor's degree also exceeds the supply.

Opportunities are especially good for young physicists in nuclear physics, electronics, quantum theory, atomic and molecular physics.

Private industry, government, and educational institutions each employ roughly similar numbers of physicists. Median income in 1951 for physicists was \$7,000 in private industry, \$6,300 in government, and \$5,600 in colleges and universities.

Earth Scientists.—Experienced geologists and geophysicists are needed especially in the petroleum and mining industries. New graduates in geology and geophysics, especially those who have had some field experience in connection with their academic work, will be in demand throughout the early 1950's. Meteorologists who are prepared for research work are finding good employment opportunities. Oceanographers capable of carrying on research work are also in great demand.

Teaching

The demand for elementary school teachers is greater for 1953-54 than for 1952-53. Over a million additional children will enter the elementary schools and add to the already swollen enrollment. The supply of new teachers to meet this great demand is slightly lower than it was in 1952-53. Around 35,000 college students will meet the requirements for grade-school teaching in June, and many times that number are needed for new positions and the replacement of experienced teachers leaving the profession.

At the high school level the supply of newly trained teachers has dropped significantly each year since 1950. This year many vacancies exist in such subject fields as: home economics, girl's health and physical education, agriculture, industrial arts, and certain physical sciences. The demand for high school teachers is expected to rise slowly over the next several years and will reach extremely high levels near the end of the decade.

Salaries for teachers continue to increase. Average salaries for all classroom teachers for 1952-53 were about \$3,400 with 13 percent averaging \$4,500 or more. Average salaries of more than \$4,000 were received by teachers in New York, California and Delaware; lowest average salaries were in some Southern States and States with a high percentage of rural schools.

Federal Civil Service

The U. S. Civil Service Commission reports that the pressing needs of Federal agencies are in scientific and technical positions such as engineer (various branches), physicist, metallurgist, cartographer and cartographic draftsman, chemist, mathematician, meteorologist, geologist, and oceanographer as well as in medical, dietetic, and library specialties. There are some opportunities for summer employment in the physical sciences for student aids and trainees.

Information about examinations currently open may be obtained from college placement officers, from Civil Service Commission offices, and from first- and second-class post offices.

Health Professions

Shortages of physicians and dentists existed even before the present mobilization program was begun. Expansion of the Armed Forces intensified the need for personnel in these professions. Demand is also growing for other health-service personnel—physical therapists, occupational therapists, pharmacists, dietitians, public health nutritionists, medical laboratory technicians, medical and psychiatric workers, and veterinarians. Over the long run the growth of the population, the increasing proportion of the older people, and increasing demand for health services by the population will sustain the demand for health-service personnel.

Nursing.—There is a critical demand for nurses brought on more by growing civilian needs than by the fighting in Korea. Hospital construction is expected to add about 200,000 beds by 1954, calling for 20,000 nursing recruits in institutional nursing alone. Thousands more are needed for public health nursing services, civil defense, industrial nursing, and as instructors in nursing schools.

Average monthly earnings of professional registered nurses in 1949 were from \$205 to \$256. Average annual salaries of industrial nurses in 1952 ranged from \$2,730 to \$3,588 in various cities.

Business and Law

Industry is actively recruiting college graduates trained in business administration. Those specialized in management and in such business techniques as accounting, advertising copywriting, market research,

sales, statistics, insurance underwriting, and personnel management are particularly sought. Those who combine leadership qualities with technical skill will have best opportunity for selection by large firms recruiting for potential executives. The demand for lawyers is greatest for those who have specialized, for example, in tax, patent, administrative, admiralty, or international law. Opportunities for women in this field have improved in recent years.

Banking.—Men graduates are in demand for trainee-positions in banks leading to positions as department heads and branch managers. The continued expansion of the banking industry is creating these opportunities. However, employers are still highly selective, particularly for positions in the largest banks. Opportunities for women have improved since the beginning of World War II; about 45 percent of all teller positions and 7 percent of all officer posts are held by women.

Accountants.—The demand for accountants is expected to remain high during the defense mobilization period and for at least a year or two thereafter. College graduates with courses in business administration as well as in accounting are preferred to those trained only in accounting. Opportunities for beginning jobs in private business establishments are more numerous than in public accounting firms. The demand for certified public accountants is strong at present and continued gains in employment are expected over the long run.

Public accounting firms pay lower beginning salaries than do private business establishments, but afford experience which is often a prerequisite for the CPA license and for advanced positions in other accounting fields.

Social Work

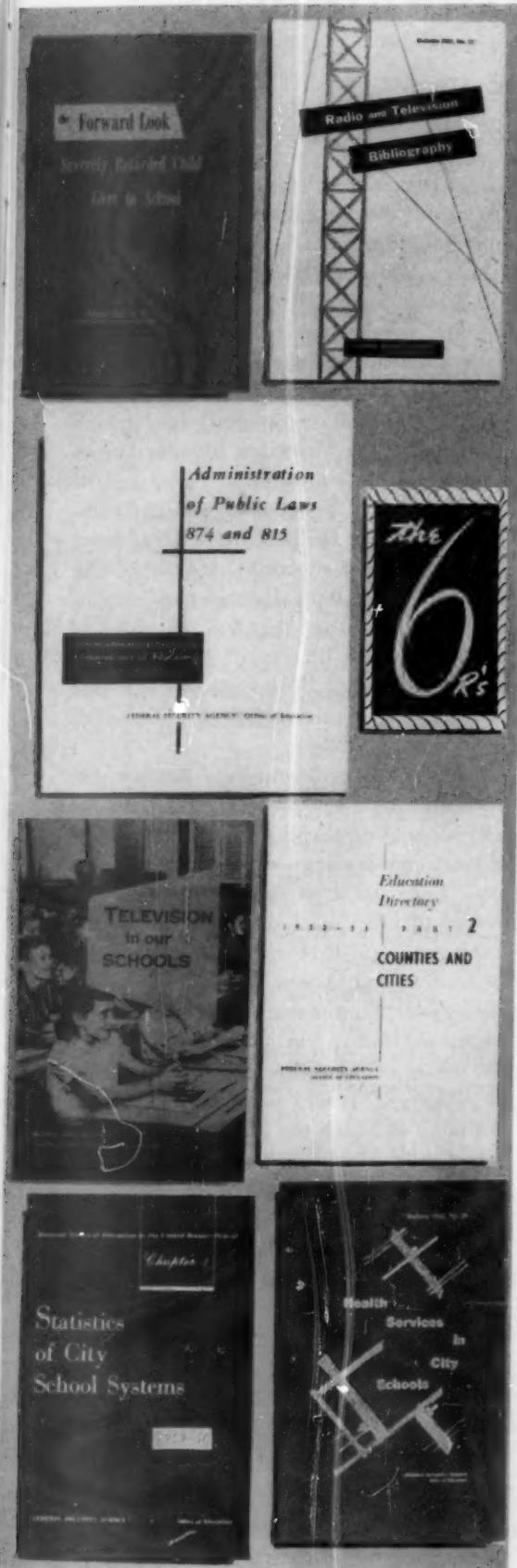
An expanding field and one which offers a variety of specialization is that of social work. There is a great need for trained personnel to handle case work, group activities, and work connected with community organization for social welfare. The field also includes administrative work, teaching, and research in social welfare. The shortage of trained qualified workers is expected to continue at least for several years among welfare agencies, hospitals, and State and Federal welfare establishments.

Median annual salaries in 1950 ranged from \$2,960 for case or group work to \$3,710 for teaching and research.

Diffusing Educational



Information Through Office of Education Publications



SHOWN on these pages are certain publications of the Office of Education that have come from the press during 1952-53.

A longer listing of Office publications, available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., follows:

Accredited Higher Institutions, 1952. 35¢.

Administration of Public Laws 874 and 815. 15¢.

Second Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, June 30, 1952. 55¢.

1952 Annual Report of the Office of Education. 15¢.

Checklists for Public School Adult Education Programs. 15¢.

Core Curriculum Development—Problems and Practices. 30¢.

Counseling College Students During the Defense Period. 25¢.

Counseling High School Students During the Defense Period. 25¢.

Directory of Secondary Day Schools, 1951-52. \$1.

Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1951-52. 60¢.

Education Directory:

- Part 1, Federal Government and States, 1952-53. 20¢.
- Part 2, Counties and Cities, 1952-53. 25¢.
- Part 3, Higher Education, 1952-53. 45¢.
- Part 4, Education Associations, 1951-52. 20¢.

Education in Sweden. 30¢.

Education in Turkey. 30¢.

Eight Measures for Evaluating Educational Programs for the Foreign Born. 15¢.

Expenditure Per Pupil in City School Systems, 1950-51. 25¢.

Faculty Salaries in Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, 1951-52. 15¢.

Federal Funds for Education, 1950-51 and 1951-52. 30¢.

Financing Adult Education in Selected Schools and Community Colleges. 15¢.

The Forward Look—The Severely Retarded Child Goes to School. 20¢.

Health Services in City Schools. 25¢.

Higher Education in France. 20¢.

How Children Learn to Read. 15¢.

How Children and Teacher Work Together. 15¢.

Know Your School Law. 15¢.

Land-Grant Colleges and Universities—A Federal-State Partnership. 15¢.

Literacy Education—A Series of Reprints from School Life. 15¢.

Occupations—A Basic Course for Counselors. 45¢.

Offerings and Enrollments in High School Subjects, 1948-49. 30¢.

The Personnel of State Departments of Education. 30¢.

Proposed Minimum Standards for State Approval of Teacher Preparing Institutions. 20¢.

Pupil Appraisal Practices in Secondary Schools. 50¢.

Radio and Television Bibliography. 20¢.

Recordings for Teaching Literature and Language in the High School. 25¢.

School Facilities Survey, First Progress Report. 40¢.

School Facilities Survey, Second Progress Report, December 1952. 35¢.

Schools at Work in 48 States. 35¢.

Science Facilities for Secondary Schools. 35¢.

The 6 R's. 10¢.

Some Problems in the Education of Handicapped Children. 15¢.

State Provisions for School Lunch Programs—Laws and Personnel. 20¢.

Statistics of City School Systems, 1949-50. 30¢.

Statistics of Higher Education: Faculty, Students, and Degrees, 1949-50. 25¢.

Statistics of Higher Education: Receipts, Expenditures, and Property, 1949-50. 20¢.

Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities—Year Ended June 30, 1951. 20¢.

Statistics of State School Systems, 1949-50. 30¢.

Students and the Armed Forces. 45¢.

Summaries of Studies in Agricultural Education. 20¢.

Supervised Practice in Counselor Preparation. 20¢.

The Teaching of General Biology in the Public High Schools of the United States. 20¢.

Television in Our Schools. 15¢.

Be sure to mail requests for these Office of Education publications to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. Enclose check or money order with your order.

To Promote the Cause of Education

By Lloyd E. Blauch, Division of Higher Education

The newly-created Department of Education was intended to be broad in scope, a fact which appears clear not only from the language of the act but also from two sources: (1) Statements of educators promoting the establishment of the office, and (2) the interpretation of the act by the first United States Commissioner of Education as revealed by his official actions.

The Commissioner of the Common Schools of Ohio, Emerson E. White, who helped prepare the memorial to Congress and the bill which was enacted, said of the proposed office:

"It would render needed assistance in the establishment of school systems where they do not now exist, and prove a potent means for improving and vitalizing existing systems. I conceive it to be possible for a national bureau of education to be so managed as to well-nigh revolutionize school instruction in this country, and this, too, without its being invested with any official control of the school authorities in the several States. A national bureau would hold up to many school systems a mirror which would reveal attainable results and desirable changes. I remark, finally, that the creation of a national bureau would be a practical recognition by the Government of the value and necessity of universal education as a means of perpetuating free institutions."

Nine days after the President signed the act creating the Department of Education, he appointed Henry Barnard as Commissioner of Education, an office he held until March 15, 1870. For years Barnard had been engaged in educational work. He was Secretary of the Connecticut Board of Commissioners for Common Schools (1838-42), State Superintendent of Schools in Rhode Island (1848-49), State Superintendent of Education in Connecticut and Principal of the State Normal School (1850-55), Chancellor of the University of Wisconsin

(1858-60), and President of St. John's College at Annapolis, Md. (1866-67). He was an educator, administrator, editor, author, and scholar. He had been untiring in his efforts for the creation of the Department of Education.

This is the second and concluding article prepared by Dr. Blauch to review the historic background of today's Office of Education. There have been many favorable comments on the first article that appeared in the May issue of SCHOOL LIFE.

The act creating the Department of Education required the Commissioner of Education to make an annual report to Congress "embodying the results of his investigations and labors," and it stated that his first report was to contain a statement about the Federal grants of land for education. Mr. Barnard soon mapped out his field of inquiry, which covered all aspects of education — elementary, secondary, collegiate, professional, and supplementary. His annual report of 856 pages, made in 1868, contained a wealth of material on schools and school systems, land grants for education, State colleges and schools of science, professional education, and education in foreign countries. It was a monumental work.

The Congress now had an office to which it could turn for assistance on educational matters, and it was not long in using the opportunity. By a Joint Resolution, approved March 29, 1867, the Commissioner of Education was directed to ascertain the conditions of public schools in the District of Columbia and submit a report on the relative efficiency of the system in force and on such additional legislation as he deemed necessary to secure the advantages of the system to all the children of the district.

The report was submitted to the Senate in June 1868 and in more extensive form in January 1870. In final form it contained 912 printed pages. This project constituted the first educational survey made by the Federal educational agency.

The second special call on the Commissioner of Education occurred in January 1870, when the House of Representatives requested from him information on technical education. The report was not complete at the time Dr. Barnard resigned from his office. Subsequently he finished the work and printed the document as one volume (807 pages) of the *American Journal of Education*. It was a comprehensive statement of technical instruction in the schools and universities in European countries.

Thus from the language of the law, the statement of Emerson E. White, and the official acts of the first Commissioner of Education it is altogether clear that the Federal Department of Education was conceived of as an office that would render an extensive service to education by way of collecting and disseminating information about education, making educational investigations, and in various ways promoting the cause of education and influencing its development. It was definitely intended as an office to which the Congress could turn when it required assistance in educational matters. The discussions of the proposal to create the office reveal no disposition whatever to limit its functions and service, except that it was not to control education; that function was to remain in the States.

The educational agency created by the Congress in 1867 was known as a "Department of Education." The original draft of the bill presented by Mr. Garfield asked for the establishment of a bureau of education in the Department of the Interior. Apparently the word "department" was adopted to give the Commissioner of Edu-

cation the power to appoint his subordinates. He was not, of course, a member of the President's Cabinet.

The office did not continue long under the title "department." In the annual appropriation act of July 20, 1868, under the caption, "Department of the Interior," appears the following:

"For compensation of Commissioner of Education, \$4,000; chief clerk, \$2,000; one clerk of class four, \$1,800; and one clerk of class three \$1,600.

"For stationery, blank books, freight, express charges, library, miscellaneous items, and extra clerical help, \$10,800; in all, \$20,000: *Provided*, that from and after the 30th day of June, 1869, the Department of Education shall cease, and that there shall be established and attached to the Department of the Interior an office to be denominated the Office of Education, the chief officer of which shall be the Commissioner of Education, at a salary of \$3,000 per annum, who shall, under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, discharge all such duties, and superintend, execute, and perform all such acts and things touching and respecting the said office of education as are devolved by law upon said Commissioner of Education."

The Congressional Globe makes but brief mention of the alteration in the status of the Department of Education. There was no debate on the subject in the House or the Senate; the change from "Department" to "Office of Education," under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, was effected in committee. It is significant that the act creating the Department of Education in 1867 was not repealed.

The Secretary of the Interior at that time, G. H. Browning, was not favorably disposed toward the Office. In his annual report to the President on November 30, 1868, he expressed "the conviction that all legislation touching the Department, and the Office of Education should be repealed." He suggested (1) that, should the Office be perpetuated, consideration be given to "the propriety of enacting by whom the Commissioner shall be appointed," (2) that the appointment of the clerks be vested in the Secretary of the Interior, (3) that the Commissioner be required to report to the Department of the Interior and not to the Congress, and (4) that an appropriation of \$6,000 for the next fiscal year would be

sufficient to pay the expenses of the Office of Education if it is economically administered.

This situation aroused the National Superintendents' Association. At its annual meeting in August 1869 it appointed a committee to act with a like committee of the National Teachers' Association to confer with the authorities in Washington in regard to the best interests of the "Bureau or Office of Education," to represent to the Congress the value of such an office, and to urge upon the Congress "that the causes which have impaired the present usefulness of said department—whatsoever they may be—be not permitted to weigh against the continuance and liberal support of the department itself."

The immediate successor to Secretary Browning was J. D. Cox. It was under him that the Office of Education began to function in the Department of the Interior. He was favorably disposed toward it.

In the appropriation act for 1870 the title of the "Office of Education" was changed to "Bureau of Education" without altering the status of the Commissioner as regards salary and duties. In 1929 the title "Office of Education" was adopted.

Brief Subsequent History

In 1917 the Congress established the Federal Board for Vocational Education, an independent agency to administer the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act. A similar function with respect to vocational rehabilitation of the physically disabled was lodged in the board in 1920. By Executive Order in 1933, the functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education were transferred to the Department of the Interior, and in the same year the Secretary of the Interior assigned these functions to the Office of Education.

In the reorganization of Government agencies on July 1, 1939, the Office of Education and its functions and personnel were transferred to the Federal Security Agency. The vocational rehabilitation function was continued in the Office of Education until it was organized in a newly established Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Federal Security Agency, in 1943.

Through the years of its history the Office of Education has continued the policies begun by Commissioner Barnard in collecting and disseminating educational information

and making studies of all aspects of education. From time to time additional functions have been assigned to it either by Acts of Congress or by Executive Order. Thus the second Morrill Act (1890) made the Secretary of the Interior responsible for certain activities in the Federal administration of the law. He delegated this work to the Office of Education.

After 1887 the conduct of educational and relief work among the Natives of Alaska was administratively under the Office of Education. This function was transferred to the Office of Indian Affairs in the Department of the Interior on March 16, 1931.

During World War I the Office of Education received appropriations to carry on certain educational activities related to the war effort. Among these were promoting school gardens, social studies, and the Americanization of immigrants. After 1934 Federal emergency relief funds were allotted to the Office to conduct certain educational investigations and demonstration projects with the use of unemployed persons. The educational program of the Civilian Conservation Corps, which trained more than 3,100,000 enrollees, was carried on under the general supervision of the Commissioner of Education. During World War II the Office carried on several extensive training programs and a student war loans program. More than 14,000,000 persons were enrolled in the training programs, which cost \$410,000,000, and 11,000 college students received a total of \$3,250,000 in loans.

Soon after the passage of the National Defense Act following the outbreak of hostilities in Korea the Office of Education was designated by the National Security Resources Board as the focal point for the relationship of Federal agencies with the schools and colleges. The Office administers the laws which provide a program of assistance for school construction and operation and maintenance in federally affected areas. To the Office was assigned responsibility as the claimant agency for the allocation of controlled materials for school and college construction. It also has certain responsibilities for the operation of an educational advisory service for the college housing program.

The Office renders a considerable amount of assistance to other Federal agencies and to Senators and Representatives on educational matters.

Pupil's own experience is basis for his learning

Reading Geared to Readiness

This article by Mrs. Post originally appeared in the Salisbury Post under the title, "Johnny Won't Know His A B C's in a Hurry but He'll Read Better, Faster." It appealed to many educators as well as laymen, and was suggested to the Editor of SCHOOL LIFE by J. H. Knox, Superintendent of Schools in Salisbury, N. C. We are pleased to present Mrs. Post's article to SCHOOL LIFE readers as an interpretation of how children in Salisbury, N. C., and many more thousands of our boys and girls throughout the United States learn today in terms of their own experiences. Photographs are by Johnny Suther, Salisbury, N. C.

By Rose Zimmerman Post, Salisbury, N. C.

"Why, it's nothing but talk wrote down," the six-year-old said in wonder. "That's all it is—just talk wrote down!"

The teacher didn't bother to correct the grammar.

Talk wrote down? Stories wrote down? Ideas wrote down?

The little boy was right, and the correct tense could come later. What was important was the wonder and the interest and the fact that he had been talking for a long time so reading "talk wrote down" was exciting and full of possibilities for him. The child was ready to start. And today, the system for teaching reading in the public schools is geared to his readiness and his desire to learn about the printed word.

It was not always so. Although prominent educators for more than a century have believed that this eagerness should be added to a child's basic familiarity with the sound of his language in teaching him to read, the primary use of the alphabet has survived until very recent years.

And parents, who remember that they were required to be letter perfect in the A, B, C's, are finding it almost as difficult to understand the new system as the children are finding it easy to learn to read.

"I really want to apologize to you," one mother told a first-grade teacher recently. "My son doesn't know his A, B, C's."

But the teacher was glad. Knowing the alphabet would not hurt the child. But not knowing the alphabet would hurt him even less, for his mind would be clear to grasp the new ideas that were in store for him.

A good first-grade teacher today realizes that reading out of books is not the most important item on the agenda of the first grade—even though many parents wonder why Johnny or Jane doesn't receive a book on the first day of school and immediately set about learning what it says.

To present a skill before a child has use for it sets up an antagonism which hinders learning even at the right time. Much more important in the first grade and in every grade are a habit of success, joy in living, some techniques for finding out what a person wants to know, responsibility toward his neighbor,



Having learned words and written their own stories, this first-grade reading circle finds fun in what may be discovered in books.

and a growing interest in the community. In fact, the real purpose of learning to read is to contribute toward these objectives as well as to develop an interest in books and reading.

Basic to a child's learning to read well and with understanding, is the desire to do so, and enjoyment in the doing. That was one place where the ABC method failed. And that is the purpose of the reading readiness program now being used in the Salisbury, N. C., city schools.

The phrase "reading readiness" may in itself be a stumbling block to the parent trying hard to understand what the teacher is doing. Actually it is a simple thing. It means giving the child a wealth of experiences, letting him realize that it is fun to read about those experiences, helping him to develop an adequate speaking vocabulary, and getting him accustomed to the habit of reading from left to right and from top to the bottom of the page.



Johnny Misenheimer finds it a simple task to read his lesson—a story about Betsy and her kitten, and illustrated by one of the other children.

It means putting a lot of books before him so that his curiosity is aroused and reading a lot of stories to him so that he develops the ability to concentrate. It means listening to him and encouraging him to tell stories—stories about himself and his friends and his pets—because those are the kind of stories in which he is most interested. And that's the place that the parent can help his child most in learning to read—rather than in making sure that he knows his alphabet.

When Johnny enters the first grade, he finds that the objects around him are labeled. Tacked to the teacher's desk is a sign which says, "desk." Beside the box of pencils is a sign which says "pencils." Near the scissors is one which reads "scissors." Beneath the painting easel is one which reads, "Come and

Betsy Kimball brought her kitten to school to illustrate her story to other first-grade children at Calvin H. Wiley School in Salisbury, N. C.



paint." Beneath the table of storybooks is one that invites, "Come and read."

Johnny's first grade is just like a bulletin board, changed daily, which says:

"Today is Monday.

"There are 14 girls at school.

"There are 15 boys at school.

"There are 29 children at school.

"Tomorrow is Tuesday."

Tomorrow might also be Johnny's birthday, in which case the bulletin board would say so.

And soon Johnny finds himself being able to find the line that says how many boys there are at school—or what day tomorrow is.

And Johnny and the other boys and girls, while listening to stories, also tell stories. Maybe Nancy brought her rabbit to school and the children like the rabbit. They make up a story about the rabbit and tell it to the teacher and she writes it down in big letters on a chart. Maybe the story says, "Nancy has a rabbit. She brought it to school one day. The children like the rabbit. They like to see it eat. The rabbit eats lettuce."

And maybe Johnny feels like drawing a picture of Nancy and her rabbit, so the picture is attached to the story, and the children, since they all like the story, all soon learn to read it.

Because the most interesting kind of stories and the most interesting kinds of pictures are those about themselves, they learn to read them because they want to know what they are.

While Nancy is telling about her rabbit and Johnny is telling his experiences, the teacher also has a favorite story. It's a story about a family with a boy and a girl and a baby. And the children like the teacher's story, too, so they make her write it down and draw pictures about it and learn to read it.

At first they learn to read the stories sentence by sentence because they learn to look for complete thoughts. But as they see them over and over again they are able to pick out phrases and then words, and then the teacher shows them some interesting games they can play with the words.

They have all kinds of games. There's too much competition from television and radio and movies and funny books these days for school to be boring. And the children learn to read very quickly.

By the time they are issued their first books—which happily are about a little boy and a little girl and a baby—they already know how to read them. So the desire to read more—to go on and see if they can also read the next book—is firmly planted. They want to look at the pictures in a book to find out what the children are doing and then they want to read to find out what they are saying—"just talk wrote down."

As long ago as 1838, Horace Mann, secretary of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts, wrote in an annual report: "Children . . . then utter words—the names of objects around them—as a whole sounds, and without any conception of the letters of which those words are composed. In speaking the word 'apple,' for instance, young children think no more of the Roman letters, which spell it, than in eating the fruit, they think of the chemical ingredients—oxygen, hydrogen, and carbon—which compose it. Hence, presenting them with the

alphabet, is giving them what they never saw, heard, or thought of before. It is as new as algebra, and to the eye, not very unlike it. But printed names of known things are the signs of sounds which their ears have been accustomed to hear, and their organs of speech to utter, and which may excite agreeable feelings and associations, by reminding them of the objects named. When put to learning the letters of the alphabet first, the child has no acquaintance with them, either by the eye, the ear, the tongue, or the mind; but if put to learning familiar words first, he already knows them by the ear, the tongue, and the mind, while his eye only is unacquainted with them. He is thus introduced to a stranger, through the medium of old acquaintances. It can hardly be doubted, therefore, that a child would learn to name any 26 familiar words, much sooner than the 26 unknown, unheard and unthought of letters of the alphabet."

"But my child didn't learn to read in the first grade at all," one parent might say.

No, but he did learn to read in the second or the third, and in all probability was as good a reader as the child who learned immediately. Possibly he just wasn't mature enough. It is as unfair to children to expect all of them to learn to read at exactly the same time as it would be if 25 parents lined their year-old babies up and said, "Now, walk." Every child is not ready for the same experiences at the same time, and one child might be mature enough for a reading experience at six when another needs another year for it.

"Well," another parent might ask, "do they read better? Tests have shown that children do read better. And they read faster—a very necessary factor in the quickly moving world today. The man of 50 years ago was not bombarded with the fantastic amount of reading matter which it is necessary for the average man of today to consume to be well informed. Moreover, tests have shown that the rapid reader, the reader who is accustomed to looking for

ideas rather than words is the more thorough reader, is the reader with the greatest grasp of what he reads.

"But, the spelling," the next parent might say. "Children today just can't spell." Not true, the records show. When comparison is made today there is one basic fallacy. Fifty years ago the largest number of children were only going to school until they were big enough to go to work. A relatively small number of people actually finished high school, whereas today the opportunities for education have been extended to almost everyone. The average speller of today is being compared with the exceptional pupil of years back.

Although modern teaching methods seem strange to the majority of parents as they first become acquainted with them, they have actually been in use for the last quarter of a century—gradually changing, gradually growing, gradually improving as the knowledge of childhood grows and as the understanding of a child develops.

Educational Level of the Nation's Population

By Rose Marie Smith, Educational Statistician

WHAT is the educational attainment of the people of the United States?

As reported by the Bureau of the Census for 1950, the median educational attainment of the Nation's population in the age group 25-29 was 12.1 years of school completed. This means that approximately half of the 25-29 age group in our country had at least entered college—a marked improvement over the same age group of a generation ago, represented by those now 55-64 years old, who had completed only 8.4 years of schooling.

Trends

Long-time trends for educational attainment of the population are not available because the Bureau of the Census did not collect such data prior to 1940. Trends may be approximated, however, by comparing the median educational attainment of the various age groups in 1950 (see table 1). Thus, the median number of school years completed by those age 25-29 in 1950 (practically all of whom had completed their

formal schooling) was 12.1 years; the median number of school years completed by those aged 30-34 in 1950 was 11.5 years; by those aged 35-39, was 10.5 years; by those aged 40-44, was 9.9 years; and so on, each successively older group having progressively lower educational attainment. The oldest group, 65 years and over in 1950, representing the average educational level of almost two generations ago, had completed only 8.2 years of school.

For each age group women had a slightly higher average educational attainment than men.

Urban and Rural

The adult population (25 years old and over) living in urban areas not only had the highest educational attainment, a median of 10 years of school completed, but also showed the greatest progress over the years: from a median of 8.2 years of school completed by the oldest group (65 years and over) to 12.2 years for the 25-29 year-old group—an increase of approximately 4

years of schooling. Rural-nonfarm adults, with a median educational attainment of 8.9 years, showed increases of about 2.5 years of schooling for men and 3.6 years for women during the same period; and rural-farm persons, with an educational attainment of 8.4 years, showed the least increase: 1.7 years for men and 2.6 for women.

White and Nonwhite

White persons 25 years old and over in 1950 had completed an average of 9.7 years of school; and nonwhite persons, 7 years. ("Nonwhite" persons, as defined by the Bureau of the Census, consist of Negroes, Indians, Japanese, Chinese, and other nonwhite races.) Nonwhite persons in the age group 25-29 in 1950 had completed somewhat less than 9 years of school, as compared with slightly more than 12 years for the white persons of the same age group. This median of 9 years of school completed by nonwhite persons, however, represented

Table 1.—MEDIAN NUMBER OF YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, BY AGE GROUP, SEX, URBAN AND RURAL AREA, AND COLOR, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1950

ITEM	Years of school completed by persons aged—							
	25 to 29 years	30 to 34 years	35 to 39 years	40 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	25 years and over
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
TOTAL.....	12.1	11.5	10.5	9.9	8.8	8.4	8.2	9.3
Male.....	12.0	11.3	10.3	9.7	8.7	8.3	8.1	9.0
Female.....	12.1	11.8	10.7	10.1	8.9	8.5	8.3	9.6
URBAN.....								10.0
Male.....	12.2	12.0	11.0	10.4	8.9	8.4	8.1	9.9
Female.....	12.2	12.1	11.2	10.5	9.1	8.6	8.3	10.2
RURAL NONFARM.....								8.9
Male.....	10.6	10.1	9.4	9.0	8.5	8.2	8.1	8.7
Female.....	11.9	11.0	10.5	9.5	8.8	8.5	8.3	9.1
RURAL FARM.....								8.4
Male.....	9.0	8.7	8.5	8.4	8.2	8.1	7.3	8.3
Female.....	10.6	9.3	8.9	8.8	8.5	8.3	8.0	8.6
WHITE.....								9.7
Male.....	12.1	11.7	10.7	10.1	8.8	8.4	8.1	9.3
Female.....	12.2	12.1	11.1	10.5	9.0	8.6	8.3	10.0
NONWHITE.....								7.0
Male.....	8.5	7.4	6.4	6.5	5.8	5.1	4.4	6.5
Female.....	9.0	8.1	8.0	7.5	6.8	5.4	4.4	7.4

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1950 Census of Population, Preliminary Reports, Series PC-7 No. 6, May 13, 1952.

the greatest progress for any group, since the group of nonwhite persons 65 years old and over who had received their education almost two generations earlier, averaged only 4.4 years of school (table 1).

Region

The West was conspicuously above the other regions in number of years of school completed by the population aged 25 years and over, with a median of 11.3 years, as

compared with 9.3 for the Nation as a whole. The Northeast averaged 9.6 years; the North Central, 9.4; and the South, 8.6 (table 2).

In each region, nonwhite persons, 25 years old and over, had a lower educational attainment level than the white persons in the same region. The median number of school years completed by nonwhite persons aged 25 and over in the South was 5.8 years; for the Nation as a whole, this figure was 6.9 years.

Table 2.—MEDIAN NUMBER OF YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY PERSONS 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER, BY REGION, SEX, AND COLOR, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1950

REGION	Years of school completed				
	ALL CLASSES			WHITE	NONWHITE
	Total	Male	Female		
1	2	3	4	5	6
CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES.....	9.3	9.0	9.6	9.7	6.9
Northeast.....	9.6	9.5	9.7	9.7	8.4
North Central.....	9.4	9.0	9.9	9.5	8.4
South.....	8.6	8.4	8.7	9.0	5.8
West.....	11.3	10.8	11.8	11.4	8.7

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1950 United States Census of Population, P-Bl.

Tasks That Lie Ahead

(Continued from inside front cover)

lican Eightieth Congress, will, literally, be a hospital where there is a story in every room. It will be a combination hospital and laboratory which will admit persons who have various types of diseases which need clinical study. These patients will each receive the most minute medical care so that the Public Health Service can intensively study their particular cases in the hope of finding new answers to pressing medical problems.

Another project in which you might be interested is the special Juvenile Delinquency Project now being studied by the Children's Bureau. This is being financed from private contributions made to the Child Welfare League of America. I am sure each of you, from stories you run in your own newspapers, know that this is a matter of grave national concern. More than a million children a year now come to the attention of police because of delinquency. We have high hopes that this study will be of assistance in trying to find an answer to this deplorable juvenile delinquency problem of our national life.

There are other examples—as you would expect in a Department as large and complex as ours.

I am sure it will be no news to you when I say that the Department, in the days and years ahead, will continue to make news for you.

As a Department whose concern, I repeat, is our human resources you would expect these stories to be human interest stories as well as the normal grist of news about appointments and administrative changes.

I have spoken of the complexities of the Department and of the tasks that lie ahead and of an occasional twinge of nostalgia for the editor's chair. Yet I can say to you in all sincerity that I am grateful for the opportunity that has been given me to play a part in these undertakings.

Last Issue of This Volume

This June 1953 issue of SCHOOL LIFE is the last issue of the 1952-53 volume No. 35.

If your SCHOOL LIFE subscription expires with the June issue, you may wish to renew your subscription at this time to insure getting SCHOOL LIFE service during the 1953-54 academic year. Send check or money order (\$1.25) to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

Extending Special Education Through State Legislation

By Arthur S. Hill, Chief, Exceptional Children and Youth

AUTHORIZATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION for exceptional children is found in the school laws of 46 States.

This statement does not imply that all 46 of these States have legislation pointed toward a comprehensive plan of special education services for all exceptional children. In several States only a restricted program for one type of handicapped child is mentioned in the school laws, i. e., instruction for homebound crippled children, or for hospitalized crippled children. In a few States the legislation authorizes or requires special education for one or more types of handicapped children but provides for no financial participation of the State in local programs. Nevertheless, in most instances, the legislation specifies that special instructional services may, or must, be maintained for several types of handicapped children and provides for State assistance to local districts in which special education services are established.

In 1949 Martens¹ found that only 42 States referred to special education in their school legislation. However, legal recognition of the school needs of exceptional children hardly begins to tell the story of developments in this field of education during the past three years. A comparison between the legislative information reported by Martens in the Office of Education bulletin, "State Legislation for Education of Exceptional Children" (including its addenda which brought her data up to date as of June 1949) and similar information pertaining to legislation in existence as of June 1952 reveals that during the 3-year period, 15 State legislatures passed bills extending existing or establishing new special education programs involving State assistance to local school districts. These legislative acts did not include increases in appropriations designed to implement more adequately already existing statutes. The new laws and modifications of existing legislation may be classified as follows:

¹ Martens, Elise. State Legislation for Education of Exceptional Children, and Addenda.

New comprehensive legislation providing State financial assistance to local programs for both physically and mentally handicapped children.....

(Delaware, Georgia, Idaho, Mississippi, North Dakota, Rhode Island)

6

Extension of existing legislation for the physically handicapped to include mentally retarded, socially maladjusted, and "other" handicapped children.....

(Washington)

1

Extension of legislation to include mentally retarded children in States already providing financial assistance to programs for the physically handicapped.....

(Louisiana, Tennessee, Texas)

3

Extension of existing legislation to include severely mentally retarded children.....

(California, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin)

4

New legislation providing reimbursement for program for mentally retarded children and an additional tax levy for support of programs for physically handicapped.....

(Kansas)

1

In several additional States, legislation affecting certain types of handicapped school children and not involving comprehensive programs was passed. These involved home-bound children in Vermont and "handicapped" children in Alabama. The later legislation authorizes special classes for handicapped children approved by the State Crippled Children's Society but provides only transportation assistance to local school districts maintaining classes.

An overview of legislative developments between 1949 and 1952 affecting local special education programs is presented in this article.

The rapid development of special education has been implemented to a great extent by provisions for supplementary assistance from State school funds. Since classes for handicapped children usually vary in size from a half dozen deaf pupils to a maximum of 20 mentally retarded children, and services for speech handicapped, hard-of-hearing children, and those with limited vision, involve the employment of additional in-

structors, it is understandable that many of the legislative acts have included formulas for "excess cost" reimbursement. Such formulas are written into the provisions of more than half of the legislation providing reimbursement for special education services to physically and mentally handicapped children.

It appears that the development of programs for general support of local schools from State funds has made an increasing impact upon the methods of assisting local special education services. In a number of States, the support of local schools is based upon an overall Foundation Program. State funds are distributed upon the basis of class room units in operation or the number of pupils in average daily attend-

Growth of State Legislation for Educational Services to Exceptional Children 1949-52

Provisions specified in legislative acts	Number of States	
	June 1952	June 1949
Authorization of some type or types of special education with and without financial assistance.....	46	42
Reimbursement from State funds authorized for one or more types of programs.....	44	34
Comprehensive legislation, referring to both physically and mentally handicapped children and providing State aid for both types of programs.....	31	22
Reimbursement provided to local districts for special education programs serving various types of physically handicapped children.....	37	30
Reimbursement provided to local districts for special education programs serving mentally retarded children.....	32	21
Modifications extending special education and State assistance to programs for severely retarded children.....	4	0
State directors, coordinators, or departments of special education required by legislation, or provided as part of the program of the State department of education.....	41	34

The Legislative Status of Public School Special Education Programs in Continental United States

JUNE 1952

State	Physically handicapped						Mentally retarded			Severely mentally retarded			Maladjusted emotional, social, and delinquency problems			State dept. or director of special education	Remarks	
	Various handicapping conditions including speech		Restricted to one or two types of programs		Mandatory	Permissive												
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
<i>Continental U. S.</i>																		
Alabama	xx	None		x	B1		x	None					x	None			xx	
Arizona	x	A3					x	A3									x	
Arkansas	x	A3					x	A2		xx	A3						x	
California	x	A3					x	A3									x	
Colorado	x	A3															x	
Connecticut	x	A3					x	None									x	
Delaware	xx	A1					xx	A1									x	
Florida	x	B2					x	B2		x	B2						x	
Georgia	xx	B3					xx	B3									x	
Idaho	xx	B2					xx	B2									x	
Illinois	x	A3					x	A3					x	A3			x	
Indiana	x	A1					x	A1					x	A1			x	
Iowa	x	A1					xx	B2					xx	None			x	
Kansas	xx	None															x	
Kentucky	x	A3					x	A3									x	
Louisiana	x	A3					xx	A3									x	
Maine	x	A3					x	B2									x	
Maryland	x	A3					x	None									x	
Massachusetts	x	D															x	
Michigan	x	A3					x	A3									x	
Minnesota	x	A3					x	A3		xx	B1						x	
Mississippi	xx	A3					xx	A3									xx	
Missouri	x	A3					x	A3									x	
Montana	x	A3					x	A3									x	
Nebraska	x	A3					x	A3									x	
Nevada																		
New Hampshire	x	None					x	B2									x	
New Jersey	x	A2															x	
New Mexico							x	B3		x	C2						x	
New York	x	C2					x	C2					x	C2			x	
North Carolina	x	A1					x	A1										
North Dakota	xx	A3					xx	A3					xx	A3			x	
Ohio	x	A3					x	B2									x	
Oklahoma	x	A3					x	B2									x	
Oregon	x	A3					x	B2					x	A3	x			
Pennsylvania	x	B1					x	B1		xx	E		xx	C2	xx	x		
Rhode Island	xx	C2					xx	C2										
South Carolina							x	D										
South Dakota	x	A3					x	D		xx	A3							
Tennessee	x	A3																
Texas	x	B2					xx	B2										
Utah	xx	B2																
Vermont							x	C1										
Virginia	x	D					xx	D					xx	D	x			
Washington	x	D																
West Virginia	x	B2					x	D		x	B2		x	B2		x		
Wisconsin	x	C1					x	C1										
Wyoming	x																	

EXPLANATION

Permissive legislation states that local districts *may* provide special education services.

Mandatory legislation *requires* the establishment of services under certain conditions, i. e., upon petition of parents, the identification of a certain number of handicapped pupils, etc.

The data are compiled from legislative provisions and do not involve local interpretations, except in Georgia (see Remarks, above), or modifications due to limited appropriations.

x Legislation reported by Martens in 1949.

xx Legislation reported since 1949.

Code for Types of Reimbursement

A. Excess cost formulas:

- A1 Total excess cost.
- A2 Limited to a stipulated percent of excess cost.
- A3 Excess cost limited to a stated amount per pupil.

B. Prescribed Allotments:

- B1 Per pupil.
- B2 Per class unit, according to a formula.
- B3 For additional teachers.

C. Cost of maintaining special classes provided:

- C1 Total costs.
- C2 Limited to a stipulated percent of total cost.

D. Administrative Allotments—no specified formula.

E. Classes Provided by State Department of Education.

ance. It is hardly surprising then that there seems to be an increasing tendency for special classes to be reimbursed as units in the general educational program. State assistance may be given as flat amounts per teacher or per classroom, or school districts may be authorized to maintain special class units involving fewer children than the number required for the reimbursement of regular elementary and secondary school classes. About one-sixth of reimbursed programs for the physically handicapped and nearly one-third of those for mentally handicapped children involve assistance on a per unit or additional teacher basis. Present legal provisions for allotting reimbursement are outlined in the following table:

Legislative Provisions for State Assistance to Local Special Education Programs

Type of formula for reimbursement of special education	Number of States in which formula is used	
	Physically handicapped	Mentally handicapped
Excess cost formulas:		
Total excess cost	4	4
Limited to a stipulated percent of excess cost	1	1
Excess cost limited to a stated amount per pupil	19	12
Range of limit per pupil excess cost	\$100-\$400	\$100-\$300
Average of limit per pupil excess cost	\$290	\$160
Prescribed allotments:		
Per pupil	2	1
Per class unit according to a formula	5	9
For additional teachers	2	1
Cost of maintaining special classes provided:		
Total costs	2	1
Limited to a stipulated percent of total cost	2	2
Administrative allotments—no specified formula.		
Total	6	1
	43	32

Authorities in the education of handicapped children are agreed that the educational development of many exceptional children depends upon early recognition of needs and appropriate training during the preschool years, as well as the extension of school programs beyond the ordinary school-leaving ages. Nursery school experiences for blind, deaf, and cerebral palsied

children are considered very important.

Many legislative acts pertaining to special education do not specify the age limits of the children who may be served but a considerable number extend the authorization of services to nursery age children and young adults. In a number of instances laws apply to any children under the age of 21 and the authorization of preschool programs may be implied. Two States specify that preschool age children may be included in special education programs and several States indicate that certain types of instructional services may be provided for 3- and 4-year old children. These modifications in early entrance requirements are not limited entirely to crippled, deaf, or blind children. Three States set the age of acceptance for mentally retarded pupils at 3. Seven laws merely require that children be under 21 or some other upper age limit.

At the upper limits of acceptance the greatest proportion of legislative acts indicate that services may be extended to children up to 21 years of age, the usual age limit for tuition free schooling. However, in a limited number of instances special education may be provided only for children up to the ages of 17, 18, or 19. Several laws impose no maximum age limitations, two specify an upper level of 25 and another allows youth already enrolled in special classes to continue their membership three years beyond the age of 21. In two States (Louisiana and North Carolina) special education may be provided for handicapped adults.

A tabular summary of special education legislation in the 48 States as of June 1952 is presented on page 141.

Among the conclusions that may be drawn from this review, the following seem to have unusual significance:

1. The States have made exceptional progress in providing legislative encouragement for special education during the past few years.
2. All except two States have recognized the need for some type of special education service through legislative enactments. In 44 States reimbursement for some type or types of programs is legally authorized.

3. An entirely new field for special education legislation has developed in recent enactments providing school programs for severely retarded children.

4. Much of the legislation can be described best as having a "piecemeal" ap-

proach. In only 31 States are there provisions for reimbursed local programs for both physically and mentally handicapped children.

5. There is no common pattern or formula for the reimbursement of local programs, although payment by the State of all or a part of excess costs seems to be the most commonly adopted method. Reimbursement from general school funds on a per-unit or per-teacher basis seems to be gaining in favor.

6. Legal authorization of services for children below and above the usually accepted school-age classification in a considerable number of States seems to indicate that much of the adopted legislation is consistent with modern thinking relative to the education of exceptional children.

7. Specific authorization of special education programs for gifted children is found in only two States and for "maladjusted" children in a limited number of instances. Nevertheless, many of the legislative acts indicate that services may be provided for "otherwise" handicapped children and might be interpreted to apply to all pupils deviating markedly from the average.

8. State legislation usually has been accompanied by provisions for leadership in the State departments of education. In 23 States this leadership is required by law in terms of a director or coordinator of Special Education. In other instances responsibilities for carrying out the legal provisions are given to chief State school officers, many of whom have appointed specialists in Special Education to their staffs. In 41 States a member of the staff of the State department of education—frequently assisted by one or more specialists—has been designated as the director, supervisor, or consultant in Special Education. All but five of these are assigned to full time services in this field.

The implications of the data may be more disturbing than satisfying. It is obvious that the advances in legislative enactments, and their formulas for State assistance, indicate that the citizens of the various States expect their schools to provide well for their handicapped children. It is true that subsequent implementing appropriations do not always enable the States to reimburse their special education services to the extent indicated by the enabling legislation. In one instance a law providing

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Testing High School Students for College

By Walter G. Daniel, Specialist for Higher Education,
Division of Higher Education

A COOPERATIVE Intercollegiate Examination Program has been developed by thirteen colleges and was implemented with the administration of tests during the period March 1-15, 1953. The initial sponsors are Bishop College (Texas), Clark College (Georgia), Dillard University (Louisiana), Fisk University (Tennessee), Johnson C. Smith University (North Carolina), Knoxville College (Tennessee), Le Moyne College (Tennessee), Lincoln University (Pennsylvania), Morehouse College (Georgia), Morris Brown College (Georgia), Spelman College (Georgia), Talladega College (Alabama), and Tougaloo College (Mississippi). These are private institutions which have united in an effort to solve some of the problems connected with securing a student body competent to do college work. They believe that a pre-admission testing program will help to provide a more objective measure of student selection. In agreeing to become participants, they have committed themselves to sharing jointly in the administration of tests and the financing of costs. Experimentation and evaluation are important aspects in the operation of the program during its first year.

Advantages

The program has evolved through cooperative planning. Over varying periods of time, a few of the colleges have conducted individual testing programs. Through experience and observation officials have become increasingly aware of unnecessary competition, duplication of effort, evidences of waste of time, personnel and resources, and the existence of dissatisfaction in making arrangements in the secondary schools. A conference of college representatives explored the possibilities and values of working together. In a mimeographed statement the six following advantages of a cooperative testing plan were listed:

1. "It would avoid the irritation and loss of time involved for high schools and students when several colleges give their own separate examinations in the course of a month or so in the same locality.
2. "It would save money for the colleges by eliminating the serious waste involved in multiple travel and maintenance expenses and in multiple expenses for test administration and scoring when two or more colleges give independent examinations in the same locality.
3. "It would lead students and high schools to attach greater importance to the examinations because the examinations would be announced well in advance for a definite date and would be publicized as examinations associated with a number of colleges.
4. "It would allow the colleges to offer tests in a much larger number of places than any one college can now reach.
5. "It would provide selected students with a good opportunity for practice in taking objective examinations, which are becoming more and more important in educational advancement, and it would provide the secondary schools with an additional check on their academic success with their students. We hope that the plan would provide a significant incentive for individual high school students who are eager to prove their merit and we hope that it might stimulate the schools to try to provide more challenging work, and in some cases a more appropriate curriculum for the superior student.
6. "The main, inclusive value of the plan is that it would help colleges to find the best qualified students for scholarship awards and would help colleges to sift out in advance those students who are not adequately equipped for college work. Individual colleges would of course make their own decisions about their use of the tests."

Flexible Uses

Within the framework of general uniform procedures, the plan allows the institutions freedom and flexibility in using the test results according to their own purposes and needs. At least three different uses and types of requirements have been identified. (1) Most colleges have indicated that only scholarship applicants were required to take the tests. (2) A few colleges have prescribed the examinations for all candidates for admission. (3) Some colleges have specified the tests for applicants who did not qualify for admission through the usual procedure, and wished an opportunity to demonstrate their fitness for college by some other means.

Testing Centers

Approximately 75 testing centers were announced for the 26 States and the District of Columbia. In determining the location of these centers, the principal aim was to reach the areas with the largest population and potential for college students. Examinations were scheduled in from three to seven cities in each of the States of Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas. The heaviest concentration, therefore, was in the South. In each of the border States of Ohio and West Virginia, two cities were selected. In 14 other States, in both the North and the South, the largest city was chosen. In this group the States were Arkansas, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, and Oklahoma.

The participating colleges assumed responsibility for giving the tests in the areas located nearest to them. For example, the colleges in Atlanta were in charge of the centers established in Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina. Because of needs, resources and experience, some of the in-

stitutions undertook to cover a larger geographic area than others. Each institution made all the arrangements with the high schools for administering the tests in the assigned area and then submitted comprehensive statements of details to the liaison officer. The interested students registered for the examination through a sponsoring college which issued a ticket of admission to the testing center.

The liaison officer was Dean George St. John, Jr., of The Basic College, Fisk University. His responsibilities included the development of uniform procedures and general instructions regarding test administration, the coordination of all information and activities, and the supplying of such supplementary information and assistance as would facilitate smooth operation and efficient management.

Scoring

The Educational Testing Service of Princeton, N. J., accepted the responsibility for test scoring. It will send the individual scores to the colleges named by the student at the time of his registration.

Recruiting

Each college was left free to continue its own program of recruitment. Prior to the giving of the tests, it supplied appropriate information concerning scholarship awards and examination requirements by the methods which it deemed most appropriate and useful.

Association Stimulation and Endorsement

Effective stimulation for the development and implementation of this program came from the Commission on Higher Education of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Following a discussion at its Atlanta meeting in December 1951, the Commission authorized a committee to investigate the problems and possibilities in cooperative testing. In October 1952, Fisk University sponsored a conference on the subject and some of the representatives at this meeting served as members of the committee which the Commission chairman appointed. In addition to the delegates from Dillard, Fisk, Hampton, Howard, Lincoln of Pennsylvania, Morehouse, Spelman, Talladega, and Tuskegee, there were representatives from the College Entrance Examination Board, the Educational Testing Service, the National Scholarship and Service Fund for Negro Students, and the Office of Edu-

cation, Federal Security Agency. From this conference came a proposal for the establishment of the "Cooperative Intercollegiate Examination Program." Institutions were circularized during November. The proposal was incorporated in a report by the special committee presented at the Association meeting at Memphis in December 1952. The Commission on Higher Education gave its informal endorsement, the opportunity to participate was extended to both public and private colleges, and the delegates from the interested institutions proceeded at once to make the necessary arrangements.

In undertaking this cooperative enterprise, the institutions did not wish to organize a special regional board or a special examination board for Negro institutions. Serious consideration was given to the use of the College Entrance Board Scholastic Aptitude Tests. The cost of \$6 per student, however, seemed prohibitive. Most of the students who were interested in the examination could not afford such a fee in view of their low economic status. The colleges considered the total cost involved more than they were able to bear. They decided on tests that were similar to those which many had used, and the Educational Testing Service indicated that it could cooperate with a program that would be less expensive. The examinations were administered without cost to the students and without restriction as to race. Four of the institutions associated with the plan are developing interracial student bodies.

Other Colleges Interested

With the interest and cooperation that have already been engendered, additional colleges are expected to join the program another year. The 65 institutions which hold membership in the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools were canvassed in November. Replies from two-thirds of the group showed that very few colleges have used preadmission examinations to any considerable extent. A total of 41, however, indicated an interest in such a program for one or more purposes. Thirty-nine felt that examinations were needed to determine scholastic awards. Regarding other purposes, 22 favored examinations for all applicants and 14 felt that they should be used for candidates whose high-school records indicated some doubt with regard to their qualifications. Many institutions

expressed an interest but were unable to participate during the first year. All of the 13 sponsoring colleges hold membership in the United Negro College Fund which has achieved outstanding success in cooperative fund raising.

Significance

The Cooperative Intercollegiate Examination Program provides another means of increasing the opportunities for higher education on the basis of individual merit and worth. It constitutes a challenge to the high schools to prepare qualified students who may meet objective standards for college admission. If the participating institutions succeed in attracting good college students and then offer an education that will meet their needs, a signal service will have been rendered for the cause of higher education. These institutions have created a plan that offers a potential demonstration of the kind of contribution that private colleges may make to improving the quality of higher education programs.

Special Education

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substantial State assistance has been rendered inoperative due to the veto of an appropriation bill. Nevertheless, the intent of the legislation is plain, and the financial implementations have been strong enough to cause a corresponding demand for increased services in local school districts.

Legislation sets a pattern for providing educational services and the implementation of legislative acts must involve both financial assistance and leadership. In many instances the establishment of local programs for exceptional children has been delayed and limited by lack of available teachers and qualified professional leadership. The preparation of specialized teachers is likewise limited because qualified college personnel experienced in special education is difficult to find. In view of the current lag in teacher education in the various States, it would appear that the situation may get worse before it improves. Perhaps the most important conclusion to be reached from a review of the legislative data is that in special education, even more than in other areas of teacher shortage, there must be found effective ways and means of teacher recruitment and preparation consistent with the rapidly developing demand for special education services.